

AN EXAMINATION OF GEORGIA RESIDENTS'
ATTITUDES TOWARD THE 1996 ATLANTA
SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

By

JOHN DAVID DIXON

Bachelor of Science

University of Arkansas

Fayetteville, Arkansas

1994

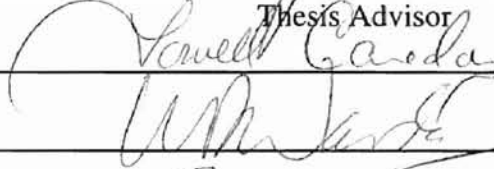
Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
May, 1997

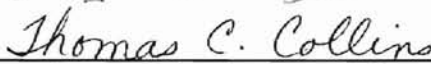
AN EXAMINATION OF GEORGIA RESIDENTS'
ATTITUDES TOWARD THE 1996 ATLANTA
SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

Thesis Approved:



Thesis Advisor





Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to those individuals whose guidance, knowledge and support facilitated this study. I would like to acknowledge my major advisor, Dr. Brian Mihalik, for his intelligent leadership, assistance and friendship. My appreciation extends to my other committee members: Dr. Lowell Caneday and Dr. William Warde, whose direction and counsel proved to be invaluable. I also want to thank and acknowledge the cooperation of the Georgia State University Applied Research Center in Atlanta, Georgia for the collection and distribution of this Olympic data.

I would also like to acknowledge those who provided suggestions and assistance for this study: Dr. Sylvia Gaiko and Dr. Jim Groves. Further, I would also like to express special regard to my parents for their continuous encouragement and love.

Finally, my gratitude is also extended to the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration for supporting me through the Master's program.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
The Problem	2
Mega-events	3
The Statement of the Problem	5
Subproblems	5
Hypotheses	6
Assumptions	6
Limitations	7
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	9
Tourism Impacts	10
Economic Impacts of Tourism	12
Tourism's Economic Multiplier	15
Economic Costs	16
Physical Impacts of Tourism	17
Social Impacts of Tourism	19
The Importance of Resident Perceptions	22
Host Resident Perception to Tourism	23
Economic Dependency	24
Residency	24
Tourism Development	25
Perceived Impacts of Tourism	26
Length of Residency	26
Other	27
Gender and Residency	28
Gender	28
Residency	29
Mega-events	30
Olympics	32
Conclusion	33

Chapter	Page
III. METHODOLOGY	34
Research Design	34
Instrumentation	35
Procedure	36
Population and Sample	37
Treatment of Data	38
IV. RESULTS	39
Research Problem and Hypotheses	39
The Statement of the Problem	39
Subproblems	39
Hypotheses	40
Presentation of Data and Analysis	41
Gender	41
Residency	46
V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	51
Summary	51
Discussion	52
Gender	53
Residency	54
Support Across Time	56
Recommendations	57
BIBLIOGRAPHY	59

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. World's Top 5 Tourism Earners for 1995	1
II. 1994 U.S. Travel Expenditures	14
III. Social Impact of Tourism	20
IV. Managerial Objectives for a Mega-event	31
V. Resident Support For the Hosting of the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympic Games	33
VI. Survey Response Rate	37
VII. Resident Support Among Gender	42
VIII. Resident Support Among Residency	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. The Interaction Between Tourism Impacts	11
2. Resident Support-Male vs. Female	43
3. Resident Support/Non-support by Males	44
4. Resident Support/Non-support by Females	45
5. Resident Support-Metro vs. Non-metro	48
6. Resident Support/Non-support by Metro	49
7. Resident Support/Non-support by Non-metro	50

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been acknowledged as one of the world's largest industries with international tourist receipts totaling \$372 billion, an increase of 7.2% between 1994 and 1995. Tourism receipts represent more than 8% of the world merchandise exports and one-third of world trade in services. World tourist arrivals in 1995 reached 567 million, a 3.8% increase over 1994 (World Tourism Organization, 1996). See Table 1 for a list of the world's top five tourism earners for 1995, as adopted from the World Tourism Organization.

Table 1

World's Top 5 Tourism Earners for 1995

Rank	Country	International Tourist Receipts*	% Change 95/94	Market Share % World Total
1	United States	58,370	-3.37	15.70
2	France	27,332	6.61	7.35
3	Italy	27,072	13.14	7.28
4	Spain	25,065	14.70	6.74
5	United Kingdom	17,468	15.10	4.70

* in millions (USD\$)

The United States of America leads practically all measures of tourism and travel worldwide. Tourism is America's largest service export generating \$21.6 billion in trade surplus in 1994. Tourism is also America's second-largest employer with total employment of 14.3 million in 1994. Tourism also accounts for America's third-largest retail sales industry with 1994 sales totaling \$417 billion, generating \$58 billion in tax revenues (Tourism Works for America Report, 1995).

Tourism's strong growth has lead it to become a major social and economic force in the world. Though tourism is seen by many nations as a salutary tool to economic welfare, tourism affects the host community and/or region with many negative as well as positive consequences. McIntosh, Goeldner, & Ritchie (1995) describe tourism when they state: "Tourism must be accepted as neither a blessing nor a blight, neither poison nor panacea. Tourism can bring great benefits but it can also bring social problems."

The Problem

Kendall and Var (1984) suggest that tourism promotes the following positive impacts: more and better leisure facilities, more parks and gardens, and an increase in employment and business opportunities. They also suggest the following negative tourism impacts: crowding, congestion, noise, litter, property destruction, crime, environmental degradation, and ad hoc construction. MacIntosh et al., (1995) also reported numerous benefits and costs of tourism, some of the benefits were: improvements of infrastructure, diversification of the economy, high multiplier impact,

increased governmental revenues, and promotion of a global community. Some of the suggested costs associated with tourism were: excess demand on resources, unbalanced economic development, commercialization of culture, religion, and the arts, and creation of social problems. There has been increasing evidence that these costs and benefits of tourism are not distributed equally to residents of destination areas (Broughman and Butler, 1981).

Mega-events

Mega-events, which can fall under the broader categorization of festivals or special events, are growing as ever-more favored tourist attractions. Such events can draw large numbers of tourists to a destination in a relatively short time period, begetting significant effects upon that destination.

Mega-events, sometimes referred to as “hallmark” events, large scale tourism and leisure events, are considered major conduits to the advancement of tourism on the host destination. Examples of mega-events include major sporting events such as the Olympics or World Cup Soccer, large expositions such as the World Fairs, and unique carnivals such as Mardi Gras in New Orleans, Louisiana (Ritchie, 1984).

Due to the attention or exploitation given to the overwhelming short-term economic gains a mega-event can have, they are often addressed with little planning and/or consideration given the potential social impacts on the host location. A decisive factor in proper management of hosting events is a formulated strategy that takes into

account all involved, particularly those concerns of the resident (Hall, 1992). Tourism planners should aspire not only to maximize the economic, cultural and social benefits of tourism but also to minimize the damaging impacts on the host community and residents as well. This entails the involvement of the residents in planning, for without resident participation, a tourism-based community would not continue to survive (Cooke, 1982). Murphy (1981) states: "If tourism is to develop within a community, the host of the 'host industry' must become willing partners." Thus, a critical component of tourism planning is the assessment of resident perceptions and attitudes towards tourism.

Um and Crompton (1987) state:

One of the primary goals of tourism development is to enhance the quality of life of residents in the host community and out-lying regions. Assessing this enhancement entails periodically evaluating residents' perceptions of tourism impacts on their community. However residents are not a homogeneous group, and it is reasonable to anticipate that different residents will have different perceptions of tourism within their community.

With an assessment of residents' perception to tourism events within a community or region, a relationship may surface which will allow for a better understanding into group bias, either negative or positive.

The Statement of The Problem

The problem of the study was to examine any relationship between gender and place of residency (distance lived from tourist event) of Georgia residents to their level of support for hosting the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games.

Subproblems

The following subproblems were developed for this study.

1. To determine the overall level of resident support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
2. To determine any relationship between residency variables and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
3. To determine any relationship between gender variables and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
4. To determine any changes in residents' level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.

Hypotheses

Based on the problem statement and the subproblems the following hypotheses will be tested:

- Ho1. There is no significant relationship between gender and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
- Ho2. There is no significant relationship between residency and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
- Ho3. There is no change in the overall level of resident support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Game across time.

Assumptions

For this study it is assumed that the residents were accurate and truthful in their responses to the survey. It is assumed that surveyors were accurate and complete in their recording of the residents' response. Finally, it is also assumed that residents' responses will be similar across time to the demographic characteristics which that resident represents.

Limitations

There were several limitations that should be recognized in the implementation of this study. First, the study did not investigate the financial dependency of residents on tourism, their length of residency within the community, or their physical proximity to the event; all of which have been shown to effect residents' perception (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Thomason, Crompton, & Kamp, 1979). Second, respondents were limited to their variation in response to the tourism question. The responses were limited to "yes," "no," and "don't know" categories. Third, the sampling technique used for the longitudinal time dimension of the study was limiting. This technique did not sample the same respondents across the recurring sectional time periods. To achieve a random sample of residents, weights were assigned, when needed, based on 1990 census data, to those demographic groups which were not equivalent to the percentage which they comprised of the population. The fourth limitation was the use of telephone surveys for data collection. Though widely used and credited by many researchers, telephone surveys may be considered a limitation due to biased responses it may give either from telephone ownership based on income level or a hidden pretext to telephone surveyor influences (Babbie, 1995).

Further, this study did not take into consideration the possible effects of the survey time dimension design on this study's results. This study utilized a cross-sectional/longitudinal time design which surveyed different respondents quarterly across several years. Babbie (1995) referred to this type of survey as a trend study. Duncan and

Kalton (1987) suggested that due to various extraneous factors, surveys taken across time may be prone to greater sampling error.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Travel has existed since the beginning of time when primitive man set out, often transversing great distances, in search of game which provided the food and clothing necessary for his survival. Throughout the course of history, people have traveled for purposes of trade, religious conviction, economic game, war, migration and other equally compelling motivations. In the Roman era, wealthy aristocrats and high government officials also traveled for pleasure. Seaside resorts located at Pompeii and Herculaneum afforded citizens the opportunity to escape to their vacation villas in order to avoid the summer heat of Rome. Travel, except during the dark ages, has continued to grow, and throughout recorded history, has played a vital role in the development of civilizations (Theobald, 1994).

Today, peoples' motivations for travel were similar to those of long ago, however tourism today takes on much greater meaning from that of the past. The increased commercialization and globalization of tourism has lead it to be a discerned ideology and therefore defined in several ways, largely depending on what field of study or context it is addressed: economics, anthropology, sociology, or geography.

Conceptual definitions of tourism, as noted by Theobald (1994), have included that as proposed by Jafari (1979), who stated that "tourism is a study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both

he and the industry have on the host socio-cultural, economic, and physical environments.” Further, Mathison and Wall (1982) concluded that, “Tourism is the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs.” For whatever purpose, reason or function, tourism represented a dynamic entity which must be viewed and managed in a holistic capacity that promotes the concerns of all affected parties.

This chapter will present the conceptual framework and review the body of literature in the field of tourism, specifically that of mega-events, pertinent to the research question in concern. The variables of race and residency were analyzed in the context of mega-event/tourism support within a community.

Tourism Impacts

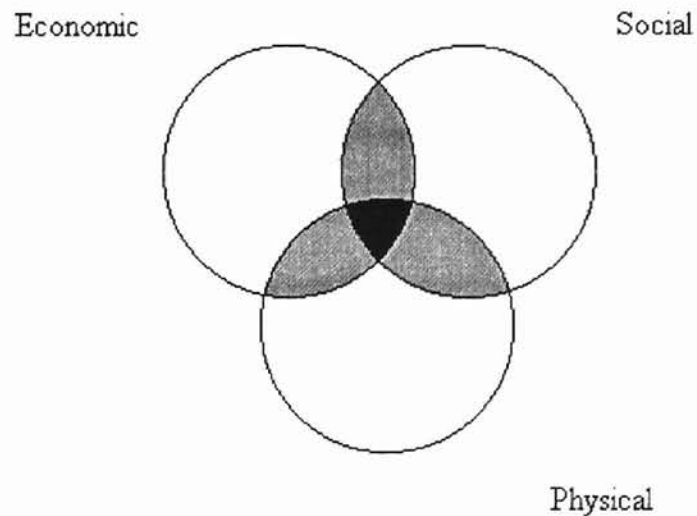
Tourism, either directly or indirectly affected the entire economic, cultural and ecological fabric of a community. Due to tourism’s ability to impact many aspects of community structure and resident life and the realization of this by academia, much research has been conducted on tourism. As observed by Davis, Allen and Cosenza (1988) much of this research, particularly the earlier studies, focused on the economic ramifications of tourism. More recent literature has addressed the tourist impacts on the host community, specifically highlighting the costs and benefit aspects of tourism

development. And, until recently, little research had confronted how these impacts were perceived by the host community.

Before reviewing the literature pertaining to residents' perceptions of tourism it was necessary to describe those factors (tourism impacts) that influence the formation of an individual's perception of tourism. The impacts of tourism can be classified into three main categories: economic, physical and social (Mathison and Wall, 1982). These impacts of tourism cannot be viewed individually. While these impacts were all separate components they must be discerned as an integrated union (Mieczkowski, 1995). Figure 1 visually depicts this relationship between the economic, physical and social impacts of tourism.

Figure 1

The Interaction Between Tourism Impacts



Economic Impacts of Tourism

California, the number one destination state in America, experienced domestic travel expenditures of \$42.5 billion and international travel expenditures of \$10.1 billion in 1993. Tourism in California also created 591,000 jobs due to domestic travel and 176,000 jobs due to international travel for a total of 767,000 jobs. Even Rhode Island, ranked last among states in tourism income, generated a total of \$824 million in travel expenditures for 1993 with total tourism created employment totaling 92,000. In states like Florida, Texas, Illinois and New York the economic impacts of tourism were also very strong (Tourism Works for America Report, 1995).

A recent economic impact study conducted on Beaufort County, South Carolina using the Tourism Development Simulation Model determined that nearly 2.8 million visitors traveled to Beaufort County generating over \$373 million in direct expenditures for the summer of 1986 through the spring of 1987. Of this \$373 million, payroll totaled \$75 million, state tax revenue totaled \$39 million and over three million dollars in local tax revenue was generated. Tourism for Beaufort County accounted for almost 46.8 percent of the total county sales (Uysal, Pomeroy, and Potts, 1992).

As these examples have shown there was no doubt that the economic impacts of tourism were quite significant. But how were these benefits allocated and in what form of earnings do they take? As reported in the Tourism Works For America Report (1995), the economic incomes induced by tourism were categorized into the following categories:

1. Expenditures: the sum of domestic and international travelers expenditures in the U.S. for 1994 was \$399.6 billion, nearly a five percent increase over 1993 figures.
2. Taxes: international and domestic traveler spending generated \$58 billion in tax revenue for federal, state and local governments in 1994. A four percent increase over 1993.
3. Employment: travel and tourism, the nation's second largest employer after health services, directly employs over six million individuals. Food service employees constituted the largest portion with nearly two million.
4. Payroll: employment payroll created by both international and domestic travelers generated a total of \$110 billion in 1994, an increase of near five percent over 1993.

Also according to the Tourism Works For America Report (1995), the economic incomes from tourism can be further categorized into the following market groups: (a) public transportation, (b) auto transportation, (c) lodging, (d) food service, (e) entertainment/recreation, and (f) general retail trade. As adopted from the Tourism Works For America Report (1995), Table 1 lists the total expenditures of U.S. travelers of 1994 within each of the six previously mentioned markets.

Table 2

1994 U. S. Travel Expenditures

Expenditure Category	Expenditures (USD\$) Billions	% of U.S. Total	%Change from 1993
Food Service	85.80	25.3%	7.3
Public Transportation	77.04	22.7	1.9
Lodging	57.76	17.0	5.8
Auto Transportation	56.06	16.5	2.7
Entertainment/Recreation	33.51	9.9	7.4
General retail trade	29.06	8.6	6.5
U.S. Total	\$339.23	100.0	4.9%

Due to innate complications and sampling error of collecting and compiling travel and tourism expenditures, some researchers have confuted the accuracy of travel expenditures reported by tourism publications, such as the Tourism Works For America Report (1995). However, this publication, Tourism Works For America Report, published by the Tourism Works For America Council is largely considered the standard within the tourism industry.

Tourism's Economic Multiplier. Further, McIntosh et al., (1995) stated, "The economic impact of tourism spending is a function of the number of domestic plus international visitors, their expenditures, and the various multipliers in that particular definition area." Thus, it was important to determine not only the direct economic tourism incomes, but also the indirect economic impacts.

The multiplier, which was sometimes ignored in economic assessments, referred to the indirect economic impacts of tourism. The multiplier was the recirculation of those monies which were originally induced by tourism. For example, a skier pays \$30 for a lift ticket. This money received by the ski area was used to pay wages of the lift operator, who then used these wages to buy groceries. The grocer then used this money to pay on the lease for his/her store and so forth. However, as the money was saved or spent outside the local community, this secondary impact of tourism expenditures diminishes. This was often referred to as leakage from the economy (McIntosh et al., 1995). Tourism Works For America Report (1995), referred to the economic multiplier as those secondary economic impacts over and above a traveler's original expenditures. The secondary impact for 1994 totaled \$1.2 billion; \$955.2 million generated from expenditures, \$267.9 million generated from payroll, and \$4.3 million generated from employment.

Economic Costs. Tourism was not without its economic costs. Theobald (1994) noted this when he stated:

Superficially at least the economic 'benefits' of tourism seem self-evident.

Yet in recent years several writers have expressed reservation about the nature and size of the benefits attributable to tourism and have become increasingly skeptical about the potentialities of tourism as a tool for development and growth and as a means of maximizing the welfare of the indigenous population.

The economic problems tourism brings were largely due to allocation of scarce resources under large demand. An important issue which can influence the degree of tourism's economic costs on a destination was the static element of carrying capacity. Carrying capacity referred to the ideal capacity of a community to accommodate travelers for any further tourist visitation would lead to negative effects on the community, environment, and quality of life (Getz, 1983). More recently, carrying capacity has encompassed other interactions between host and visitor and other various tourism affects.

Indifferent to a destination's level of carrying capacity, the economic problems caused by tourism, as observed by Mathieson and Wall (1982), included the following: (a) the danger of over dependence on tourism, (b) increased inflation and higher land values, (c) an increased propensity to import, (d) the seasonality of production and the low rate of return on investments, and (e) the creation of other external costs.

Physical Impacts of Tourism

The physical impacts of tourism referred to those effects of tourism on elements of the natural environment and the man-made or built environment. "The apparent conflict between tourism and the environment is largely due to the difficulties of protecting the environment in the face of economic pressures to promote the growth of tourism" (Cohen, 1983).

Mathieson and Wall (1982) suggested that two view points exist about the impacts tourism causes on the environment. One point of view stated that tourism contributed to the restoration of natural landmarks and monuments and placed importance in the conservation of natural resources vital to tourism success. The other view point, however, blamed tourism for the degradation of the environment, criticizing tourism planners for neglecting the natural resources.

One such concept or effort that has developed in recent years, which promoted the beneficial relationship between tourism and the environment, was that which was often referred to as ecotourism. The principle of ecotourism was to enhance and sustain the quality and uniqueness of the natural environment through responsible travel (McIntosh et al., 1995). Ecotourism can aid conservation efforts by increasing government protection given to fragile environments; stimulating community environmental awareness; and promoting designation of new reserves. Nevertheless, due to the relatively new emergence of "environmentally correct travel practices," ecotourism was still novel to some tourist destinations.

The stance that tourism has compromised much of the environment that tourism was built upon was not without support. Tourism's primary resource was often the unique environment of a destination, the climate, scenery, wildlife, cultural and historic heritage. However, much of the secondary resources and conditions created to provide for mass visitation of tourist, such as hotels, transportation, and infrastructure, compromised this existing natural environment.

As Mieczkowski (1995) noted, the negative environmental impacts of tourism were caused either by the tourist or the structural developments created to cater to these tourists. These negative environmental impacts included:

1. Pollution; which includes an increase in air, water and solid waste pollution.
2. Flora and Fauna; referring to the encroachment on and destruction of wildlife and plant life.
3. Soil and Beaches; referring to the contamination and erosion of soil and terrain foundations.

Social Impacts of Tourism

Possibly one of the more important aspects of tourism was that of the social impacts tourism brings (Hall, 1992; McIntosh et al., 1995, Ritchie, 1984). Hall (1991) defined the social impacts of tourism as “the manner in which tourism and travel effect changes in collective and individual value systems, behavior patterns, community structures, lifestyle and the quality of life.” McIntosh et al., (1995) reported that tourism can positively influence the social aspects of a community through: (a) the broadening of educational and cultural horizons, (b) an increased quality of life by higher incomes and improved standards of living, (c) environmental protection and improvement, and (d) an increased quality in recreational parks and facilities. Table 2 depicts the potential social impacts of tourism as adapted from the U.S. Department of Economic Affairs, International Trade and Tourism Division (1984).

Table 3

Social Impacts of Tourism

Positive Impacts:	Negative Impacts:
* Individual Positive reinforcement of the self-concept of individuals of the host society	Negative impacts on the self-concept of individuals of the host society
* Family Strengthening of the family as an institution	Weakening or breakdown of the family as an institution
* Community Promotion of social health and social integration Improvements in education and levels of literacy Rise in group integration Promotion of understanding between tourists and hosts	Rise in social pathology and social disintegration Dislocations in the educational system. Leading to lower levels in educational achievement Rise in group polarization Creation of friction between tourists and host community
* Culture Preservation and development of indigenous culture Maintenance and improvement of positive social values	Destruction of indigenous culture Destruction of positive social values and reinforcement of negative values

U.S. Department of Economic Affairs, International Trade and Tourism Division (1984)

Mathieson and Wall (1982) described the social effects of tourism when they stated:

If it is assumed that beneficial effects are those which are conducive to the survival of the social systems of destination areas in an unchanged form, then the social effects... must be considered to be predominantly negative.

Mathieson and Wall (1982) further described the negative social effects that can lead to the homogenization of societies:

1. The overcrowding of infrastructures, accommodation, services and facilities which tourists have to share with the local population.
2. The display of prosperity amidst poverty may cause explosive situations....
3. The employment of non-locals in managerial and professional occupations carrying greater responsibilities and superior salaries to those occupations available to members of the host community.
4. The increase in activities deemed to be undesirable, such as prostitution, gambling and crime.
5. The gradual erosion of indigenous language and culture increasing numbers of the host society speaking the language of their visitors.

The Importance of Resident Perceptions

Until recently little regard has been given to the outcome of tourism impacts on the host society and thus the response of that society. Jafari (1981) noted this when he suggested a necessity to go beyond the traditional economic analysis and to examine the social impacts of tourism events. Rothman (1978) also noted this when he stated, "very little is known of how permanent residents feel about their communities or how they react to the presence of a large number of transients in their community."

Without considerations given to the residents' perspective of tourism, the hosting of a tourism event would be complex. Hall (1989) suggested prudence be exercised in the planning process of tourism events concerning the host residents when he stated:

Perhaps more than any other industry, tourism is based on face-to-face contact between visitor and resident, and given residents opposition or resentment to tourists it is quite possible that tourism development could be restricted if there is a lack of community support for tourism projects.

The impacts of tourism can incur a far more inclusive response than a singular change in social dimensions. Theobald (1994) described the possible economic repercussions when the host residents were ignored, which included: (a) the loss of support for the authorities/councils which promote tourism; (b) an unwillingness to work in the tourism industry; (c) a lack of enthusiasm in promoting the tourism product by word of mouth; (d) a hostility to the tourists themselves, which can be manifested in

overcharging, rudeness and indifference to the tourists' holiday experiences; and
(e) delays in the construction of tourism development because of community protests.

Host Resident Perceptions to Tourism

Over the past decade a body of research findings have been conducted which explored residents' perceptions of tourism impacts (Allen, Hafer, Long & Perdue, 1993; Allen, Long, Perdue & Kieselbach, 1988; Ap, 1990; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Broughman and Butler, 1981; Davis, Allen & Cosenza, 1988; Harvey, Hunt & Harris, 1995; King, Pizam & Milman, 1993; Lankford, 1994; Lankford and Howard, 1994; Liu and Var, 1986; Long, Perdue & Allen, 1990; McCool and Martin, 1994; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Murphy and Andressen, 1988; Perdue, Long & Allen, 1987; Pizam, 1978; Pizam and Pokela, 1985; Ritchie, 1988; Ross, 1992; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Thomason, Crompton & Kamp, 1979; Tyrell and Spaulding, 1984).

Some generalities can be drawn from the tourism research addressing residents' perception, but yet, these studies have had many contradictions in their findings which invite further investigation (Allen et al., 1988). In general some of these studies found that those demographic groups that benefited the most from tourism had a positive perception of tourism.

Following an exchange theory logic (Bryant and Napier, 1981; Emerson, 1972), this research generally deducted that those who benefit from tourism will have more favorable perceptions of tourism than those who do not. Nonetheless, there have been

very few significant variations in this category of tourism research that can be attributed to either socioeconomic or sociodemographic characteristics (King et al., 1993; Perdue et al., 1987). The following is a summary of this research, based upon major findings:

Economic Dependency. The Thomason et al., (1979) study attempted to evaluate the impacts of tourism on the residents of Corpus Christi, Texas. The study found that residents generally have positive attitudes toward tourism. Among residents, entrepreneurs, and public providers of services and facilities, entrepreneurs, the group which is most likely to benefit from tourism, had the most positive attitude. In Milman and Pizam's (1988) study of tourism's social impacts in Central Florida, they found that residents with the highest overall level of support for tourism were those individuals who believed tourism benefited their community. Further testing of the sociodemographic characteristics revealed that those persons who were employed in the tourism industry also had a strong perception of tourism. Pizam and Pokela's (1985) study of the perceived impacts of casino gambling on a community found that one of the contributing variables to residents' perception was the perceived impact on jobs for the community. The variable of gender was also a predictor of residents' attitudes with females perceiving higher negative impacts of casinos. In general, they found a strong relationship between the perceived impacts of casinos and residents' attitudes.

Residency. Belisle and Hoy's (1980) case study of residents' perceptions of Santa Marta, Columbia, South America found that the only independent variable that could significantly predict residents' perceptions was distance. The further the distance an individual lives from the tourist area the less positive the impacts of tourism are

perceived. The other independent variables of socioeconomic status, education, age, and sex were tested to be insignificant. Tyrell and Spaulding's (1984) study of attitudes toward tourism growth in Rhode Island suggested residents' attitudes were related to distance of the tourism event from the respondent's home. Regional differences were also found with metropolitan regions showing more favorable attitudes toward tourism and rural regions being less favorable. Sheldon and Var's (1984) study in North Wales, United Kingdom, also found one of the significant variables contributing to resident perceptions of tourism was distance a resident lived from the tourism center.

Tourism Development. Pizam's (1978) study of the social costs of tourism on Cape Cod, Massachusetts found that, in general, heavy tourism activity or development on a destination area leads to negative attitudes toward tourism. The study also found that those who are tourism-employed have more favorable attitudes than those who are not tourism-employed. The Allen et al., (1988) study of the impact of tourism development on Colorado residents' perceptions of community life found that as tourism development increased, resident perceptions tended to become more negative. This suggested that level of tourism development was related to residents' perception of community life. Allen et al., (1993) conducted a study of ten rural Colorado towns to examine residents' attitudes toward tourism and recreation development. In general, they found that residents had positive attitudes toward tourism. Additionally, they found that residents' attitudes were related to the level of tourism development and the total economic activity.

Perceived Impacts of Tourism. Perdue et al., (1987) conducted a study on resident support for tourism development and found that, when controlling for personal benefits from tourism, tourism perceptions are generally unrelated to residents' characteristics, but were related to residents' perceived impacts of tourism. King et al., (1993) suggested that residents' perceptions of tourism were based not on certain resident characteristics, but yet on a rationalization of the tradeoffs between the positive and negative impacts of tourism on the community. Ross's (1992) study of residents of Cairns, Australia measured resident perception of the impact of tourism on community facilities, as well as individual and community life. He found that the residents perceived community leisure and entertainment facilities to be positively affected, and living and accommodation costs to be negatively affected. He also found that residents perceived the impacts of tourism to be more beneficial for the community rather than personally.

Length of Residency. Broughman and Butler (1981) conducted a study of residents' attitudes toward the social impacts of tourism. They found that significant differences in residents' attitudes were related to length of residency, age and language, and tourist contact. Liu and Var's (1986) study of resident attitudes toward tourism development in Hawaii, found the demographic variables of length of residency and ethnicity contributing the most to significant differences in resident attitudes. No significant differences were found for the variables of gender, place of residency (i.e., island), income, education, occupation, or job type (tourism related or non-tourism related).

Other. McCool and Martin (1994) conducted a study of Montana's residents' community attachment and attitudes toward tourism development. Significant relationships were found between community attachment and tourism perception. Those respondents who rated strong community attachment tended to have higher perceptions of tourism. In Ritchie's (1988) study of residents' views toward tourism, he found the variable of gender to explain some of the variance in attitude toward tourism. A study conducted by Perdue et al., (1987) on five rural Colorado communities examined the influence of outdoor recreation participation on residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism. The results of this study found no significant differences in tourism perception and attitudes of participants and nonparticipants. In Davis et al., (1988) study of Florida residents, they assessed and segmented residents with respect to their attitudes, interests, and opinions toward tourism. They discovered that the residents could be grouped into five identifiable segments based upon their degree of negativity toward tourism.

Gender and Residency

As stated earlier, these studies were somewhat contradicting and do attract further research. Furthermore, much concern had been expressed regarding the complexity of tourism research and the inadequacy of the elementary methodologies of past studies in measuring tourism concepts (Ap, 1990).

Building from past studies, an objective of this study was to examine the independent variables of gender and residency in relation to tourism. With few studies suggesting gender as a significant variable in determining residents' perceptions of tourism impacts, why was this an important subject for further research?

Gender. This study's examination of gender was based upon the following factors. First, based upon the findings of Pizam and Pokela (1985) and Ritchie (1988), gender has explained some of the variance in tourism attitudes. Also, as noted in Harvey et al., (1995), men and women do not benefit equally from tourism. They suggested as many regional economies shift from traditional resource based industries (e.g. ranching and mining) to service-oriented industries, many changes in family structure, employment status, pace of life and life-style will rapidly take place. Traditional male and female roles will be altered due to tourism. "Men who lose their jobs in traditional industries may find their wives, sisters, mothers, and other female relatives employed by local tourism operations." Thus, it was suggested that the male and female groups will differ in their perceptions toward tourism.

Second, the clear absence of women in tourism research demanded attention. As reported by Lankford and Howard (1994), although research has examined a number of sociodemographic variables in relation toward tourism, no study has purposely examined all independent variables. As also noted in Harvey et al., (1995), social sciences have suffered from biases regarding women, the most outstanding one being an absence of women in many research projects.

Residency. The variable of residency demanded attention due to the extensive past research suggesting relationships between the distance an individual lives from a tourist area and their perceptions of tourism (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Murphy and Andressen, 1988; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Tyrell and Spaulding, 1984). Also, following the exchange theory logic it was assumed that those individuals who live closer to a tourism event will benefit greater and thus have more favorable perceptions of tourism.

A need for research into these variables was also supported since mega-events were a relatively new area of tourism study that has been predicated by many significant differences in definition, method and theory (Hall, 1992).

Mega-events

Numerous studies have also been conducted that address major events within a community that attract international attention and large numbers of visitors. Ritchie (1984) used the term “hallmark” or “mega” events to describe such events. Ritchie (1984) defined such an event as being a major one-time event or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short or long-term.

There has been little systematic effort in the past to monitor and report upon the impacts which a hallmark event has on the host city and its residents. As a result, it has been difficult for cities considering the preparation of bids for future events to identify and assess the range of positive and negative impacts which an event might have on their city as well as the possible reactions of the citizens of the host community (Ritchie and Aitken, 1985).

Hall (1992) noted that, “the critical element in the success of hosting events is having a clearly defined management strategy which satisfies the motivations of both visitors and hosts.” Objectives in hosting a mega-event included numerous factors that ideally will achieve a balance between the positive and negative impacts tourism and/or a mega-event can have on a host region. Table 4 lists the objectives for a mega-event as identified by the Canadian Government Office of Tourism (1982):

Table 4

Managerial Objectives for a Mega-event

Objective
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to upgrade cultural activity in the community • to attract tourists • to involve the community in the civic celebration • to develop popular participation in the arts, crafts, sports or athletics • to advance and promote the community for the public benefit • to promote political and cultural exchanges • to create or strengthen a spirit of goodwill between the community's social of ethnic groups • to promote utilization of tourist facilities during the off-season • to call public attention to unique characteristics or attraction of the community • to earn revenue that can be used to provide a needed but otherwise unattainable social benefit for the community

Olympics

One such mega-event that had received considerable attention was that of the Olympics Games. The modern Olympic Games, established in 1894, have become one of the largest and most sought after international sporting events in the world (Theobald, 1994).

A series of studies which monitored the views of residents of the host city toward the Olympics over time, referred to as the Olympulse studies, Olympulse I-IV, had been conducted by Ritchie and Aitken, (1984, 1985) and Ritchie and Lyons, (1987, 1990). As Ritchie and Lyons, (1990) noted the general purpose of these studies was to track the awareness, knowledge and perception of the Calgarians to the 1988 Winter Olympics. The goal was to provide a strategic assessment of a mega-event as a conduit to development for a successful tourism destination. One of the variables measured by this research was resident support for hosting of the 1988 Winter Olympic Games. The major concern involved with this assessment was to determine resident rejection and, if necessary, to explore why the lack of support.

Table 5, as adopted from Ritchie and Lyons (1990), summarized the responses of residents' support for hosting of the 1988 Winter Olympic Games in Calgary, Canada.

Table 5

Resident Support For the Hosting of the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympic Games

Olympulse	<u>Percentage of Respondents</u>			Total
	Yes/Support	No/Don't Support	Uncertain	
IV - 1986	85.6%	5.8%	8.7%	100.0%
III- 1985	86.6	5.3	8.1	100.0
II - 1984	87.6	7.9	4.4	100.0
I - 1983	84.7	8.8	6.5	100.0

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine any relationship between gender and place of residency (distance lived from tourist event) of Georgia residents to their level of support for hosting the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games.

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature related to resident perceptions of tourism. Emphasis has been placed in the area of potential impacts of tourism and mega-events, the perception of those tourism impacts by residents, and the grouping of residents according to similar perceptions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will present the methods and approaches of the study. For the purpose of presentation the chapter has been separated into four subsections of research design: instrumentation, procedure, population and sample, and treatment of data. Instrumentation explains the research instrument used. Procedure defines the process followed in collecting the data. Population and sample describes the subjects who participated in this study. Treatment of data describes the analysis of data and the statistics that were used.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to gain knowledge of resident support for mega-event tourism within a state. The specific objectives were as follows:

1. To assess residents' support for a tourism mega-event.
2. To determine any support differences between resident groups based on residential and gender variables.
3. To investigate any trends across time, from the planning, implementation and closure of a tourism event, in overall and demographic group level of support.

The dependent variable in this study was the level of support for host residents concerning the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games. The independent variables in this study were the demographic characteristics of the respondents. For the purpose of the study only the independent variables of gender and residency were analyzed.

Instrumentation

The research instrument was a computer-assisted telephone survey, known as the Georgia State Poll, of Georgia residents conducted by the Applied Research Center at Georgia State University in Atlanta, Georgia, USA. A database purchased from Survey Samplings, Inc. provided a randomized list of Georgia telephone numbers.

The Georgia State Poll was a statewide, scientific survey of public opinion and behaviors concerning policy issues. Conducted quarterly, the poll randomly interviewed approximately 800 respondents from across the state, approximately one-half of whom were from the Atlanta area. Questions also were sponsored by state agencies and other public, private, and non-profit organizations interested in poll information. In addition, research questions from the faculty of Georgia State were included. The overall Georgia State Poll generally consisted of 60 - 65 questions grouped around a variety of topical areas. The 1996 Summer Olympic Games were an example of one of these question groupings. The questions of the poll pertaining directly to this study were limited to eleven questions by the Poll Administrator. The inclusion of additional "Olympic"

research questions was restricted because of the sale of polling questions to private concerns and other research interests.

Residents' perceptions of the Olympic Games were collected as part of the Summer 1992, Winter 1992, Summer 1993, Winter 1994, Summer 1994, Winter 1995, Summer 1995, and Winter 1996 Georgia State Poll. The single question utilized in obtaining level of resident support was stated as follows: "All things considered, do you think it is a good idea for Georgia to host the 1996 Summer Olympic Games?" Responses were limited to "yes, no, and don't know." This question was originally asked in Ritchie and Aitken's (1984) Olympulse research and modified for the 1996 Summer Olympic Poll.

Procedure

The respondents received oral instructions from a staff of trained telephone interviewers as to the purpose of the study and to the method of answer options. Surveyors were required to follow a written script on a computer screen for all respondents. All responses were directly logged and compiled over time into a computer system. This data was then formatted and transferred into the SPSS for Windows statistical package for analysis.

Confidentiality was achieved through the use of the telephone and computer-aided random digit dialing. Due to the nature of the survey, results were likely to contain some

error. Ninety-five percent of the time, error due to the random selection process will be no more than three point five percentage points plus or minus the reported percentage.

Population and Sample

The population in the study was all adult residents of Georgia owning a working telephone, including new and unlisted numbers. The study sample was chosen through computer-aided random digit dialing. The Georgia Poll was not structured to survey the same person repeatedly over time. Thus, the Olympic component of the Georgia Poll surveyed different people in each of the individual polls. Table 6 shows the number of individuals surveyed and the response rate accumulated from each survey.

Table 6

Response Rate 1992-1996

Poll Date	N	Response Rate %
Summer 1992	758	62.8
Winter 1993	726	51.0
Summer 1993	800	77.0
Winter 1994	809	74.0
Summer 1994	817	87.0
Winter 1995	754	73.0
Summer 1995	822	79.3
Winter 1996	866	68.0

Treatment of Data

To present a true random sample, the actual results collected were weighted by the Poll Administrator using 1990 U.S. census data, on a county level in the state of Georgia, to those demographic groups which were not equivalent to the percentage which they comprised of the population. Weighting occurred based on the following demographic variables: race, age, gender, and place of residency. Responses to the survey were tabulated and analyzed using the SPSS for Windows version 6.1. Response rates were calculated by using the number of completed interviews divided by the number of completed interviews plus the number of refusals, plus the number of uncompleted call backs. The independent variables of gender and residency were collapsed into the following categorizations, respectively: male and female; within metro-Atlanta and outside of metro-Atlanta. Within metro-Atlanta included those counties of Fulton, Dekalb, Gwinett, Cobb, and Clayton as defined by the historical metropolitan statistical area. Outside of metro-Atlanta included all other counties in Georgia outside of this area.

Chi-square analysis was used to determine statistically significant relationships between the demographic groups of gender and residency and the level of resident support.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Chapter IV will present the results of this study. The chapter will be divided into the following sections: research problem and hypotheses, and presentation of data and analysis.

Research Problem and Hypotheses

For the purpose of Chapter IV the research problem and hypotheses will be stated again.

The Statement of The Problem

The problem of the study was to examine any relationship between gender and place of residency (distance lived from tourist event) of Georgia residents to their level of support for hosting the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games.

Subproblems. The following subproblems were developed for this study.

1. To determine the overall level of resident support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
2. To determine any relationship between residency variables and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.

3. To determine any relationship between gender variables and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
4. To determine any changes in residents' level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.

Hypotheses

Based on the problem statement and the subproblems the following hypotheses were tested in this study:

- Ho1. There is no significant relationship between gender and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
- Ho2. There is no significant relationship between residency and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across time.
- Ho3. There is no change in the overall level of resident support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Game across time.

Presentation of Data and Analysis.

The following is an evaluation of the data. Normative data are presented in Tables 7 and 8 with graphical representations presented in Figures 2 through 7. In order to test hypotheses number one and two, a 2x2 Chi-square test of independence was conducted for each of the variables (gender by support, and residency by support). To test hypothesis number three, a 2x8 Chi-square test of independence was conducted for all variables and time periods.

Gender

As detailed in Table 7 and represented in Figures 2 through 4, testing of hypothesis number one found no significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between gender and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games.

Testing of hypothesis number three for gender did find, however, a significant difference in level of support. When gender was analyzed separately across time there was a significant decline in level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games for male and female residents. As observed in Figure 3, a significant decline in level of support was found for male residents across time ($X^2=44.0580$, $p=.00001$, $df=8$). Subsequently, as shown in Figure 4, a significant decline in level of support was found for female residents across time ($X^2=52.1212$, $p=.00001$, $df=8$).

Table 7

Resident Support Among Gender

Poll Date	N	Missing Responses	<u>Male</u>		Non-support		<u>Female</u>		Non-support		Chi-square
			Support	%			Support	%			
			#		#	%	#		#	%	
S 1992	758	28	270	91.5	25	8.5	413	94.9	22	5.1	.06490
W 1993	726	14	328	95.3	16	4.7	346	94.0	22	6.0	.43112
S 1993	800	58	300	86.0	49	14.0	352	89.6	41	10.4	.13300
W 1994	809	29	340	91.6	31	8.4	365	89.2	44	10.8	.25575
S 1994	817	29	352	92.6	28	7.4	362	88.7	46	11.3	.06034
W 1995	754	53	287	85.2	50	14.8	321	88.2	43	11.8	.23835
S 1995	822	91	294	88.3	39	11.7	332	83.4	66	16.6	.06146
W 1996	866	48	311	83.6	61	16.4	372	83.4	74	16.6	.94065

S = summer; W = winter.

* $p \leq .05$, $df = 1$

Figure 2

Resident Support Male vs. Female

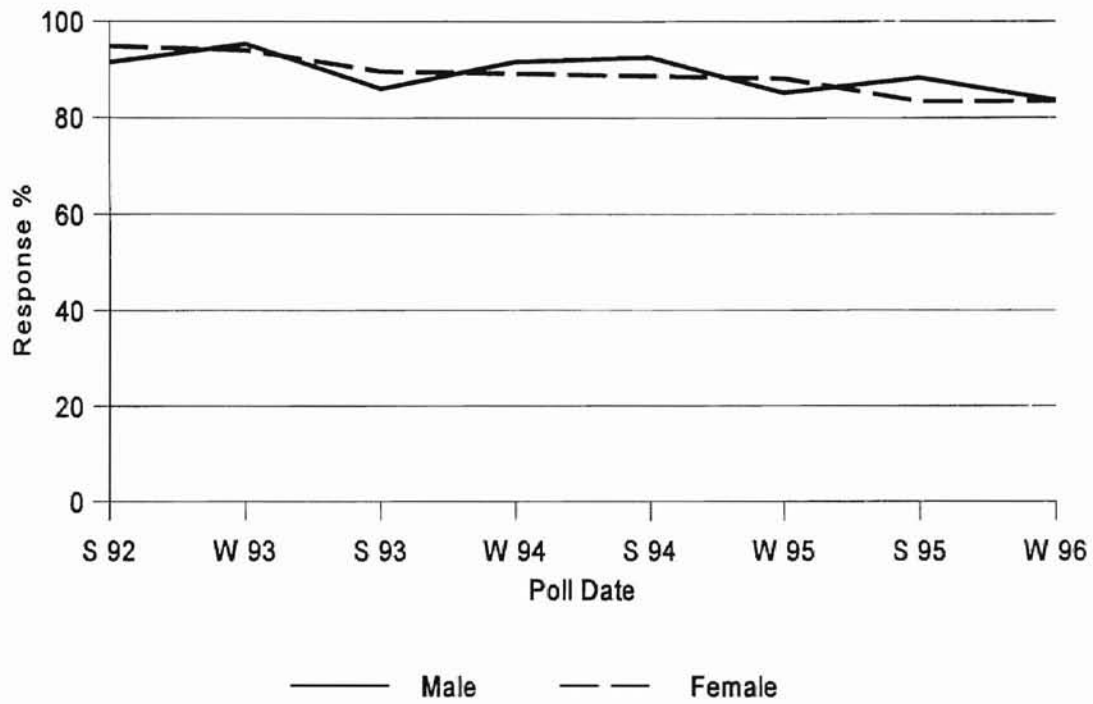


Figure 3

Resident Support/Non-support by Males

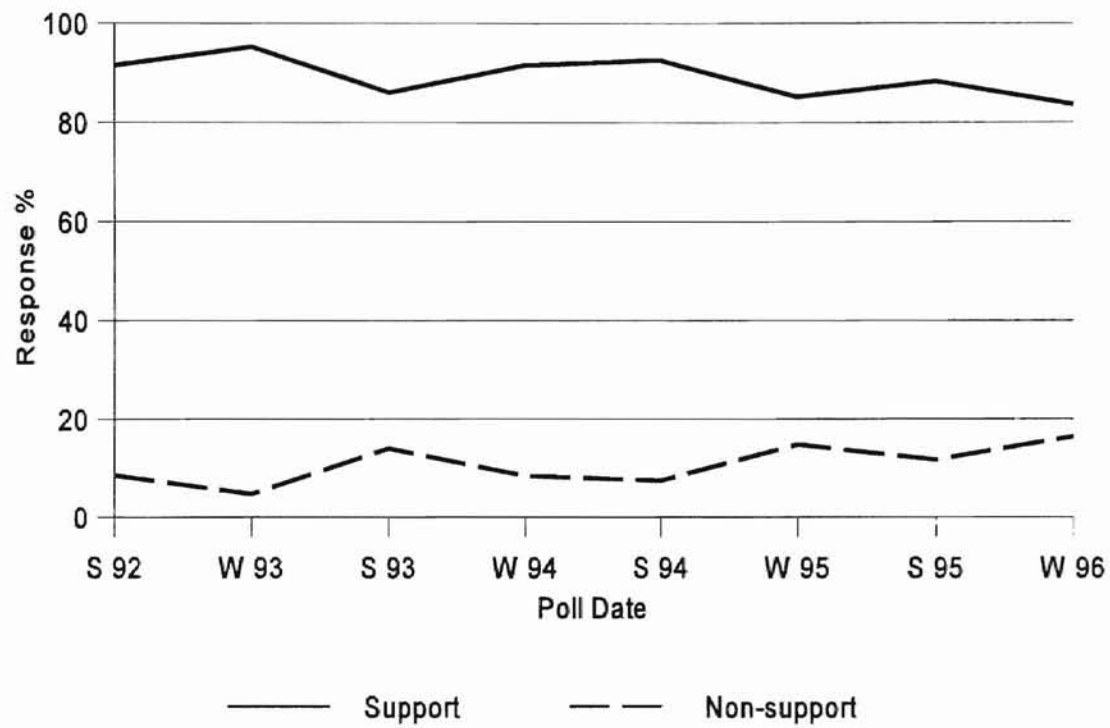
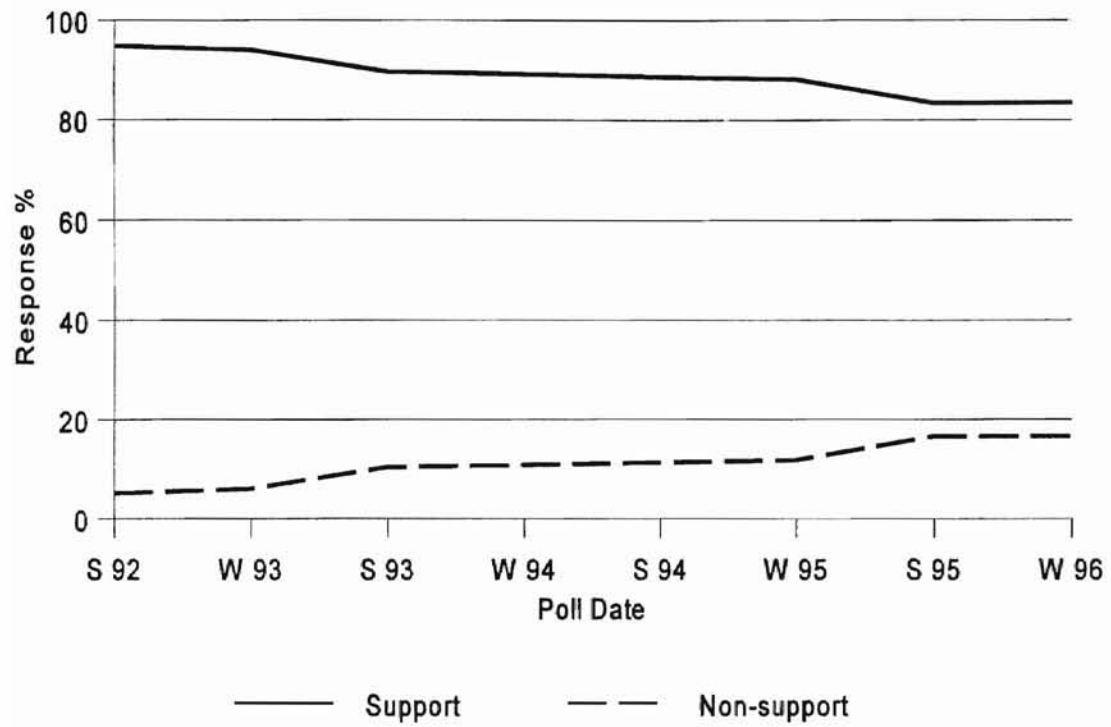


Figure 4

Resident Support/Non-support by Females



Residency

As detailed in Table 8 and represented in Figures 5 through 7, testing of hypothesis number two found a significant relationship ($p \leq .05$) between residency and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games across six of the eight survey dates. In general, non-metro Atlanta residents tended to have a higher level of support for hosting the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympics versus Atlanta metro residents (Figure 5).

Testing of hypothesis number three for residency did find a significant difference in level of support. When residency was analyzed separately across time there was a significant difference found in level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games between Atlanta metro and non-metro residents. As observed in Figure 6, a significant decline in level of support was found for Atlanta metro residents across time ($X^2=40.3529$, $p=.00001$, $df=8$). Subsequently, as observed in Figure 7, there was a significant decline in level of support found for non-metro residents across time ($X^2=57.5869$, $p=.00001$, $df=8$).

Table 8

Resident Support Among Residency

Poll Date	N	Missing Responses	<u>Metro</u>		Non-support		<u>Non-metro</u>		Non-support		Chi-square
			Support	%			Support	%			
			#		#	%	#		#	%	
S 1992	758	28	241	90.9	24	9.1	442	95.1	23	4.9	.02957*
W 1993	726	14	226	94.2	14	5.8	448	94.9	24	5.1	.67442
S 1993	800	58	222	84.4	41	15.6	430	89.8	49	10.2	.03242*
W 1994	809	30	224	85.5	38	14.5	481	93.0	36	7.0	.00070*
S 1994	817	30	232	85.9	38	14.1	482	93.2	35	6.8	.00080*
W 1995	754	53	214	87.7	30	12.3	394	86.2	63	13.8	.57946
S 1995	822	92	212	79.1	56	20.9	413	89.4	49	10.6	.00013*
W 1996	866	49	233	79.8	59	20.2	449	85.5	76	14.5	.03459*

S = summer; W = winter.

* $p \leq .05$

Figure 5

Resident Support Metro vs. Non-metro

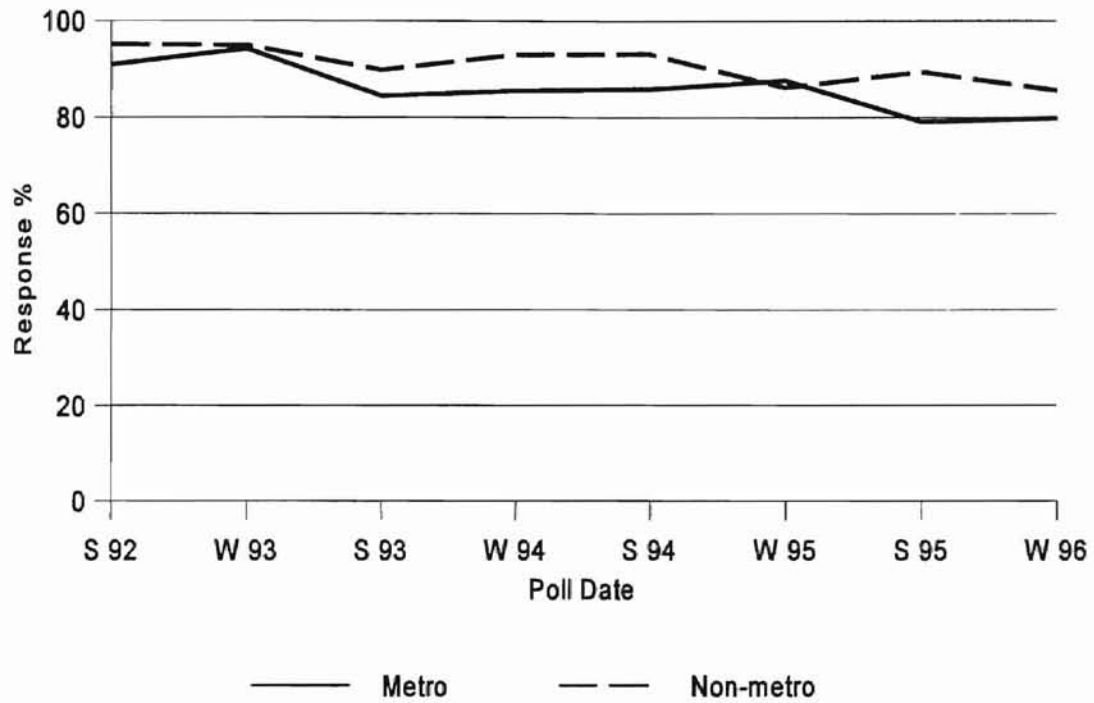


Figure 6

Resident Support/Non-support by Metro

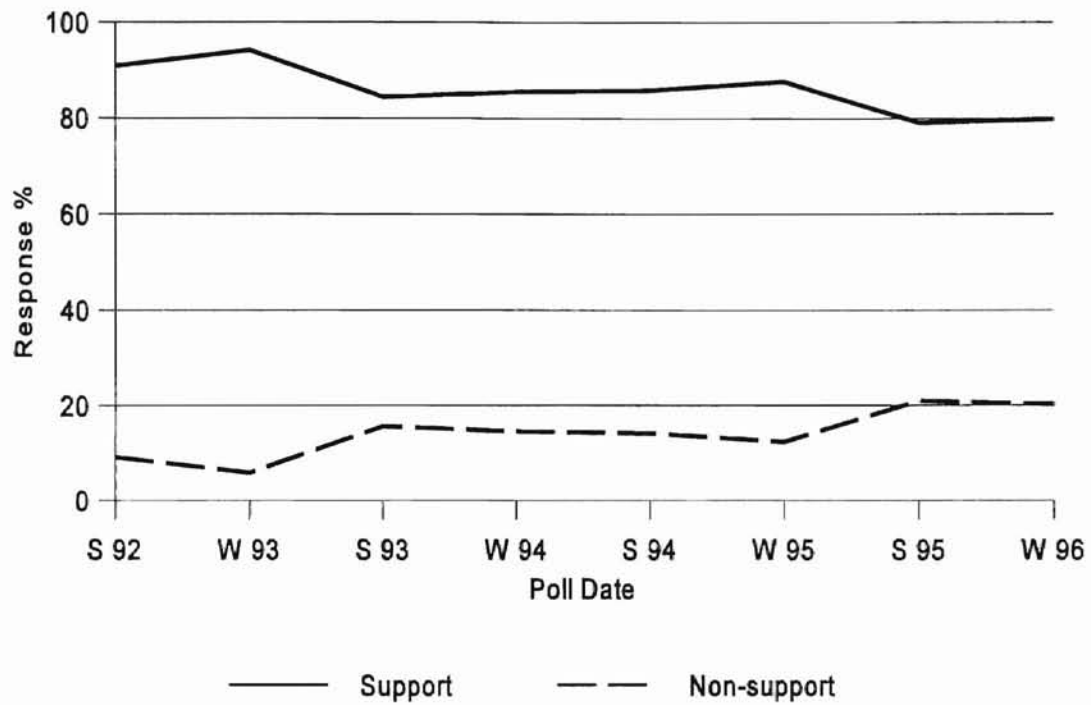
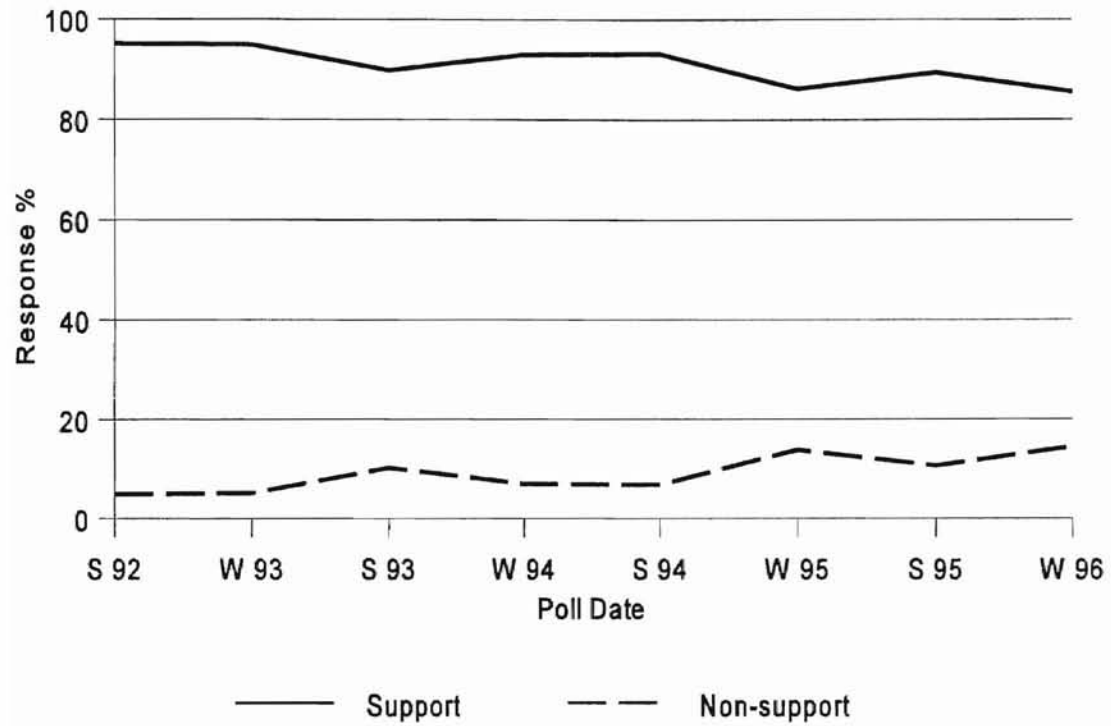


Figure 7

Resident Support/Non-support by Non-metro



CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter V includes a brief summary of the research, a discussion of the research results, and recommendations for further research.

Summary

In summarizing the research, it was found that there was an overwhelming level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic across all variables and time points. Also, the results showed that there were no significant differences in level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games among gender. There was, however, a significant difference in level of support between place of residency. Further, a significant change in level of support across time for all variables was found. Specifically responding to each hypothesis the following was found:

Hypothesis #1 stated that there is no significant relationship between gender and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games. Analysis of the data provided a basis for accepting this hypothesis. There were no significant differences among males or females and level of support.

Hypothesis #2 stated that there is no significant relationship between residency and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games. Analysis of the data

provided a basis for rejecting this hypothesis. With the exception of the Winter 1993 Poll and the Winter 1995 Poll, it was found that there was a significant difference among residency and level of support.

Hypothesis #3 stated that there is no change in the overall level of resident support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Game across time. Analysis of the data provided a basis for rejecting this hypothesis. It was found that across all time periods there was a significant change in level of support for all variables. There tended to be a downward trend in support for all variables.

Discussion

The overall purpose of this study was to examine whether a relationship exists among Georgia residents and level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games, and whether that level of support will change across time. The results of this study indicate that for certain resident groups a relationship does exist, and that the level of support held by residents did change across time. The following is a discussion of the results of this study categorized by the pertinent variables.

Gender

In this study it was suggested that men and women would support/perceive the 1996 Summer Olympic Games much differently. However, that was not the case; no significant differences among genders was found. Thus, the results imply that men and women share similar perceptions of this tourism mega-event.

With past literature and logic implying that men and women may hold different perceptions toward tourism and its impacts, why does this study not support that ideology? In Ritchie's (1988) study of attitudes toward tourism, it was found that gender explained some of the variance. Pizam and Pokela (1985) found that females perceived higher negative impacts than did males of a casino being built in their community. As noted in Harvey, et al. (1995), based on a traditional community and family structure, tourism would alter the orthodoxed economic base of a community, thus redefining male and female roles in that structure, and also affecting pertinent attitudes and beliefs toward tourism.

Considerations given to the results of this study suggest some tentative observations: The impacts of tourism are not universal and may depend upon a variety of other social, economic, or demographic variables. For instance, the impacts of tourism may be reliant upon an individual's economic dependence to tourism, attachment to the community, or the community level of tourism development. Milman and Pizam (1988) found that those employed in the tourism industry tended to have a more favorable attitude toward tourism. As suggested by Long, et al. (1990), resident attitudes toward

tourism were influenced by the level of tourism development within a community. Um and Crompton (1987) noted that residents' perceptions of tourism may be attributed to the attachment level which the resident has toward the community.

The ever-changing roles of men and women and the equality between the genders may be narrowing so as to homogenize attitudes and perceptions. As suggested by Emerson (1972) and Bryant and Napier (1981), exchange theory dictates that those who benefit from tourism will have favorable perceptions toward tourism. In this study, the inequality between male and females may have been minor, thus lessening the misappropriation of those tourism benefits.

Residency

This study found that a significant difference does exist between Georgia residents based upon place of residency. Those individuals living further away from the mega-tourism event had a significantly higher level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games. Why do those individuals that reside closer to the tourism event support/perceive it less favorably; what factors or variables could influence their perceptions?

One possible observation would be defined by the following: Following an exchange theory logic, Emerson (1972) and Bryant and Napier (1981), residents that live further outside a tourism event may have perceived greater benefits and fewer costs than those residents who lived closer to the event. For example, residents who live closer to

the mega-tourism event may experience fewer benefits and greater costs caused by the event than those residents that lived further away, therefore, negatively affecting those residents' perceptions who reside near the event. As noted in Mihalik and Simonetta's (1996) study of the negative impacts of the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games, only nine percent of Georgia residents indicated that they actually ordered Olympic tickets; a majority of Georgians may perceive they are receiving less value than originally anticipated in return for hosting the Olympic Games.

As also noted in Mihalik and Simonetta's (1996) study, those impacts that were perceived as being the largest potential problems by Georgia residents were:

1. Traffic congestion: Respondents ranked this impact as the number one liability in all four Olympic liability surveys. "The fact that the issue of increased traffic congestion was the highest perceived liability . . . shows universal concern for this critical issue in a city where driving to work was greatly favored over the use of mass transportation" Mihalik and Simonetta's (1996).

2. Price gouging: With concern about possible increases in local hotel rates, Olympic merchandise and ticket prices, respondents ranked price gouging as the number two liability. According to Mihalik and Simonetta (1996), the Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG) tried to control price gouging for local hotels and restaurants, however, their ability to control prices in other retail facets was limited. Further, there was no mechanism created to curb price gouging by ACOG, who controlled rights over all Olympic related products. Olympic venue tickets were significantly high, closing

ceremony tickets cost as high as US\$636 per ticket, and Olympic merchandise ran considerably higher than comparable non-Olympic products.

3. Strain on law enforcement: Due to the influx of visitors, income and media attention, respondents were concerned about the strain on law enforcement, which was ranked as the number three liability. Subsequently, because of this perceived strain on law enforcement, increased crime ranked as the number four liability.

Logic dictates that the negative impacts of the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games, with regard to the four highest ranked perceived liabilities, will decrease as distance from the event increased, thus further reinforcing the exchange theory.

Support Across Time

The results of the study showed a significant decrease in level of support for the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympic Games by all variables. For all variables there tended to be a downward trend in level of support. What factors would cause an initial high level of support and then cause it to decline across time?

One possible reasons could include: Costs and benefits were not constant or proportional across time. Perceived economic, physical and social costs increased as the actual event neared, consequently causing perceived benefits to decrease as the mega-tourism event developed.

As also noted by Mihalik and Simonetta (1996) and proposed by Mowen and Mowen (1991), the decrease in resident support may be related to the “future optimism”

aspect of time and outcome valuation marketing theory. Mowen and Mowen (1991) suggested that “when outcomes occur in the future, outcome optimism is predicted because of relatively greater valuations of gains. When outcomes are expected to occur in the present, losses loom greater than gains....” Because resident support decreased across time, and actual or perceived liabilities increased, this time and outcome valuation theory may explain this phenomenon.

Further, residents’ perceptions may have been initially unrealistic, leading to an unavoidable failure to meet high expectations. Residents’ perceptions may also have been influenced by other extraneous variables. For instance, the media may have created a high level of excitement for the 1996 Summer Olympic Games, then as the event developed, exploited the perceived liabilities. As noted by Mihalik (1995), Georgia residents utilized the television (57%) and newspapers (28%) as their primary Olympic news source. Negative press coverage may have increased as the Summer Olympics grew nearer, thus influencing Georgia residents.

Recommendations

This study has provided a basis for more in-depth research relevant to the field of mega-event tourism, its impacts, and the effects of those impacts. Further research into mega-event tourism and its impacts could explore the following:

1. If the actual costs and benefit of tourism are allocated unequally, to what groups and how? Further identification of those other groups and impacts would be advantageous.
2. Understanding how tourism and its impacts are perceived by all residents.
3. Understanding the long-term implementation of a tourism mega-event. From the moment of conception and development of the event to the actual event, what management implications and economic, physical, or social impacts are involved?

This study could also provide useful direction for future tourism event planners.

To disregard the host residents in the planning of a mega-tourism event will ultimately induce ill feelings from the residents. The existence of tourism depends not only on the natural or man-made environment, but also those residents in that environment. The host resident must be considered a strong, essential component of tourism. Murphy (1981) states: "If tourism is to develop within a community, the host of the 'host industry' must become willing partners."

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Allen, L.R., Hafer, H.R., Long, P.T., & Perdue, R.R. (1993). Rural Residents Attitudes Toward Recreation and Tourism Development. Journal of Travel Research, 31 (4), 27-33.
- Allen, L.R., Long, P.T., Perdue, R.R., & Kieselbach, S. (1988). The Impact Of Tourism Development On Residents' Perceptions Of Community Life. Journal of Travel Research, 27 (1), 16-21.
- Ap, J. (1990). Residents' Perceptions Research on the Social Impacts of Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 17, 610-616.
- Babbie, E. (1995). The Practice of Social Research, (7th Ed.). Harrisburg, VG: Wadsworth Publishing Co.
- Belisle, F.J., & Hoy, D.R. (1980). The Perceived Impact of Tourism By Residents: A Case Study in Santa Marta, Columbia. Annals of Tourism Research, 2, 83-101.
- Broughman, J.E., & Butler, R.W. (1981). A Segmentation Analysis of Residents Attitudes To The Social Impacts Of Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 3, 569-590.
- Bryant, E.G., & Napier, T.L. (1981). The Application of Social Exchange Theory to the Study of Satisfaction with Outdoor Recreation Facilities. Outdoor Recreation Planning, Perspectives, and Research. T.L. Napier, ed., Bubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt Publishing.
- Canadian Government Office of Tourism (1982). Planning festivals and events. Canadian Government Office of Tourism, Ottawa Canada.
- Cohen, E. (1983). Workshop on Environmental Aspects of Tourism, The Impact of Tourism on The Physical Environment, Annals of Tourism Research, 5, 215-237.
- Cooke, K. (1982). Guidelines for Socially Appropriate Tourism Development in British, Columbia. Journal of Travel Research, 21 (2), 22-28.
- Davis, D., Allen, J., & Cosenza, R.M. (1988). Segmenting Local Residents By Their Attitudes, Interests, and Opinions Toward Tourism. Journal of Travel Research, 27 (2), 2-8.

- Duncan, J.G., & Kalton, G., (1987). Issues of Design and Analysis for Surveys Across Time. International Statistical Review, 55 (1), 97-117.
- Emerson, R. (1972). Exchange Theory, Part I: A Psychological Basis for Social Exchange. In Sociological Theories in Progress, J. Berger, M. Zelditch, & B. Anderson, eds., New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin.
- Getz, D., (1983). Capacity to Absorb Tourism Concepts and Implications for Strategic Planning. Annals of Tourism Research, 10, 239-263.
- Hall, C.M. (1992). Hallmark Tourists Events: Impacts, Management & Planning. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hall, C.M., (1991). Introduction to tourism in Australia: impacts, planning and development. Cheshire, South Melbourne.
- Hall, C.M., (1989). Hallmark tourist events: analysis, definition, methodology and review. 3-19, in G.J. Syme, B.J. Shaw, D.M. Fenton, W.S. Mudler (eds.) The planning and evaluation of hallmark events. Averbury, Aldershot.
- Harvey, M.J., Hunt, J., & Harris, C.C. (1995). Gender And Community Tourism Dependence Level. Annals of Tourism Research, 22, 349-366.
- International Tourism & Trade Division, U.S. Department of Economic Affairs (1984). Enhancing The Positive SocioCultural Impacts of Tourism - Public Attitude Awareness Programme, 2, Washington, D.C..
- Jafari, J., (1981). Limit to Tourism Development: An AIEST Conference Report. Journal of Travel Research. 19 (3), 25-26.
- Jafari, J., (1979). Tourism and Social Science: A Bibliogrpaphy. Annals of Tourism Research, 6, 149-195.
- Kendall, K.W., & Var, T. (1984). The Perceived Impacts of Tourism: The State-of-the-Art. Tourism Research Publications. Social Science Research Institute and School of Travel Industry Management. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.
- King, B., Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Social Impacts of Tourism: Host Perceptions. Annals of Tourism Research, 20, 650-665.
- Lankford, S.V. (1994). Attitudes and Perceptions Toward Tourism and Rural Regional Development. Journal of Tourism Research, 32 (3), 35-43.

- Lankford, S.V., & Howard, D.R. (1994). Developing A Tourism Impact Attitude Scale. Annals of Tourism Research, 21, 121-139.
- Liu, J.C., & Var, T. (1986). Residents Attitudes Toward Tourism Impacts In Hawaii. Annals of Tourism Research, 13, 193-214.
- Long, P.T., Perdue, R.R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural Residents Tourism Perceptions And Attitudes By Community Level Of Tourism. Journal of Travel Research, 28 (3), 3-9.
- Mathison, A. & Wall, G. (1982). Tourism: Economic, physical, and social impacts. London, UK: Lonoman.
- McCool, J.F., & Martin, S.R. (1994). Community Attachment and Attitudes Toward Tourism Development. Journal of Travel Research, 32 (3), 29-34. Mowen, J., &
- McIntosh, R.W., Goeldner, C.R., & Ritchie, B.J.R. (1995). Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies, (7th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Mieczkowski, Z. (1995). Environmental Issues Of Tourism And Recreation. Lanham, ML: University Press of America.
- Mihalik, B.J., (1995). A Three Year Assessment of the Potential Negative consequences of the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympics. In Erdner Kaynak and Tunc Erem (eds.), Proceedings: Innovations, Technology and Information Management for Global Development and Competitiveness, 630-634. IMDA: Hummelstown, PA, USA.
- Mihalik, B.J. & Simonetta, L., (1996). A Four Year Assessment Of The Potential Negative Impacts Of The 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympics. In Erdner, K., Lascu, D.N., Becker, K. (eds.), Restructuring For Global Production, Service Needs, And Markets: Business Strategy And Policy Development For A Global Economy and Projections For The Twenty First Century, 304-309. IMDA: Hummelstown, PA, USA.
- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1988). Social Impacts Of Tourism On Central Florida. Annals of Tourism Research, 15, 194-204.
- Mowen, J., & Mowen, M., (1991). Time and Outcome Valuation: Implications for Marketing Decision Making. Journal of Marketing, 55, 54-62.
- Murphy, P.E. (1981). Community Attitudes Toward Tourism: A Comparative Analysis. International Journal of Tourism Management, 2 (3), 189-195.

- Murphy, P.E., & Andressen, B. (1988). Tourism Development on Vancouver Island: An Assessment of the Coreperiphery Model. The Professional Geographer, 40, 32-42.
- Perdue, R.R., Long, P.T., & Allen, L. (1987). Rural Residents Tourism Perceptions And Attitudes. Annals of Tourism Research, 14, 420-429.
- Pizam, A. (1978). Tourist Impacts: The Social Costs to the Destination Community as Perceived by its Residents. Journal of Travel Research, 16 (4), 8-12.
- Pizam, A., & Pokela, J. (1985). The Perceived Impacts Of Casino Gambling On A Community. Annals of Tourism Research, 12, 147-165.
- Ritchie, B.J.R., (1988). Consensus Policy Formulation in Tourism: Measuring Resident Views Via Survey Research, Tourism Management, 9, 199-212.
- Ritchie, B.J.R. (1984). Assessing the Impact of the Hallmark Events: Conceptual and Research Issues. Journal of Travel Research, 23, 2-11.
- Ritchie, B.J.R. & Aitken, C.E., (1985). Olympulse II - Evolving Resident Attitudes Toward the 1988 Winter Olympic Games. Journal of Travel Research, 23 (4), 28-33.
- Ritchie, B.J.R. & Aitken, C.E., (1984). Assessing the Impacts of the 1988 Olympic Winter Games: The Research Program and Initial Results. Journal of Travel Research, 22 (3), 17-25.
- Ritchie, B.J.R. & Lyons, M., (1990). Olympulse VI: A Post-Event Assessment Of Resident Reaction To The XV Olympic Winter Games. Journal of Travel Research, 28 (3), 14-23.
- Ritchie, B.J.R. & Lyons, M. (1987). Olympulse III/IV: A Mid-Term Report on Residents' Attitudes Concerning the XV Olympic Winter Games. Journal of Travel Research, 26 (1), 18-26.
- Ross, G.F., (1992). Resident Perception of the Impact of Tourism on an Australian City. Journal of Travel Research, 30 (3), 13-17.
- Rothman, R.A., (1978). Resident and Transients: Community Reaction to Seasonal Visitors. Journal of Travel Research, 16 (3), 8-13.
- Sheldon, P.T., & Var, T. (1984). Residents Attitudes to Tourism in North Wales. Tourism Management, 5, 40-47.

- Theobald, W.F. (1994). Global Tourism: The Next Decade. Great Britain, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann Ltd.
- Thomason, P., Crompton, J.L., & Kamp, D.B. (1979). A Study of the Attitudes of Impacted Groups Within a Host Community Toward Prolonged Stay Tourist Visitors. Journal of Travel Research, 17 (3), 2-6.
- Tourism Works For America Council (ed.). (1995). Tourism Works for America Report, 1995 Special Edition.
- Tyrell, T., & Spaulding, I.A. (1984). A Survey of Attitudes Toward Tourism Growth In Rhode Island. Hospitality Education and Research Journal, 8 (2), 22-33.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J.L. (1987). Measuring Resident's Attachment Levels In A Host Community. Journal of Travel Research, 26 (1), 27-29.
- Uysal, M., Pomeroy, R.S., & Potts, T.D. (1992). County-level Tourism Impact Assessment: A Case Study in Beaufort County, South Carolina. Journal of Travel Research, 31 (1), 57- 65.
- World Tourism Organization (1996). World's Top Tourism Earners 1995, (On-line). Available: <http://www.world-tourism.org/esta/highlights/GOtopear.htm>

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 04-03-97

IRB#: HE-97-059

Proposal Title: AN EXAMINATION OF GEORGIA RESIDENT
ATTITUDES TOWARD THE 1996 ATLANTA SUMMER OLYMPIC
GAMES

Principal Investigator(s): Brian Mihalik, J. David Dixon

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

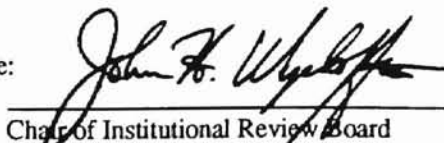
ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
AT NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING
THE APPROVAL PERIOD.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR
PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE
SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR
APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:



Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: April 10, 1997

cc: J. David Dixon

VITA

John David Dixon

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: AN EXAMINATION OF GEORGIA RESIDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD
THE 1996 ATLANTA SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

Major Field: Hospitality Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Jonesboro, AR, on May 8, 1972, the son of Robert and Lynn Dixon.

Education: Graduated from Walnut Ridge High School, Walnut Ridge, Arkansas in May 1990; received Bachelor of Science degree in Marketing Management from the University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas in May 1994. Completed the requirements for the Master of Science degree with a major in Hospitality Administration at Oklahoma State University, Department of Hotel and Restaurant Administration, May, 1997.

Experience: Employed as a marketing assistant by Tyson Foods, Inc., 1994 thru 1995; employed by Oklahoma State University as a graduate teaching assistant, Department of Hotel and Restaurant Administration, 1995 thru 1996.